## Lab 6

In this lab, you will practice with sequences, series, and power series on Mathematica. Specifically, you will learn how to

- Define and evaluate terms and limit of a sequence,
- Evaluate partial sums and series,
- Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence of a power series,
- Approximate a function by polynomials.


## 1 Define and evaluate terms and limit of a sequence

(1) Recall that a sequence is a function from $\mathbb{N}$ to $\mathbb{R}$. Thus, it can be defined the same way we define a function. For example, the sequence $a_{n}=\frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2^{n}}$ can be defined as follows.

$$
\mathrm{a}\left[\mathrm{n}_{-}\right]:=(-1)^{\wedge}(\mathrm{n}+1) / 2^{\wedge} \mathrm{n}
$$

(2) To view the first 20 terms of this sequence, try the command

$$
\text { Table }[\{n, a[n]\},\{n, 1,20\}] / / \text { TableForm }
$$

To convert the fractions into decimal-point numbers, replace a[n] in the command by $n[a[n]]$. If you want 4 significant digits, then use $N[a[n], 4]$ instead.
(3) Because a sequence is also a function, you can graph a sequence as you can with a function. However, since the variable $n$ is a natural number, you will use DiscretePlot instead of Plot.

```
DiscretePlot[a[n], {n,1,20}, PlotRange -> Full]
```

The horizontal axis shows the indices $n$ and the vertical axis shows the values of $a_{n}$.
(4) A sequence can also be defined by a recursive formula. For example, the Fibonacci sequence $a_{1}=1, a_{2}=1, a_{n}=a_{n-1}+a_{n-2}$ can be defined in Mathematica as

```
a[1] := 1
a[2] := 1
a[n_] := a[n - 1] + a[n - 2]
```

Find the first 20 terms of this sequence.
(5) Find the first 20 terms of the sequence defined recursively as

$$
a_{0}=a_{1}=a_{2}=1, \quad a_{n}=a_{n-1}-2 a_{n-2}+a_{n-3}
$$

Graph the sequence using DiscretePlot. Does the sequence appear to converge or diverge?
(6) If the general formula for $a_{n}$ is available, you can simply use the command Limit. For example, to compute

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 n^{2}+n \sin (n)}{n^{2}+1}
$$

try the following:

```
a[n_] := (2 n^2 + n*Sin[n])/(n^2 + 1)
Limit[a[n], n -> Infinity]
```

(7) Graph the above sequence using DiscretePlot to confirm the result.

The command Limit used above doesn't work well with sequences that are defined recursively. To find the limit of such a sequence, we use the command RSolveValue instead. The syntax is as follows:
RSolveValue [eqn, expr, n]
where eqn is a list consisting of the recursive formula and all initial conditions, expr is whatever expression you want to compute, and n is the index variable.
(8) For example, we want to find the limit of the sequence

$$
a_{n+1}=\frac{a_{n}+n a_{n-1}}{n+1}, \quad a_{0}=0, a_{1}=1
$$

Symbolically, the limit of $a_{n}$ may be viewed as $a_{\infty}$ (as if $n$ is substituted by $\infty$ ). Thus, $a_{\infty}$ is the value we want to find. Try the following:

```
RSolveValue[{a[n + 1] == (a[n] + n a[n - 1])/(n + 1),
    a[0] == 0, a[1] == 1}, a[Infinity], n]
```

(9) Consider a sequence defined recursively as follows:

$$
a_{n+1}=\frac{2 a_{n}+3}{a_{n}+4}, \quad a_{0}=-2
$$

Find the limit of the sequence using RSolveValue. Then graph the sequence to confirm the result.
(10) Consider the series

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln n}{n^{2}}
$$

To define the $k$ 'th partial sum, do the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{a}\left[\mathrm{n}_{-}\right]:=\log [\mathrm{n}] / \mathrm{n} \wedge 2 ; \\
& \mathrm{s}\left[\mathrm{k}_{-}\right]:=\operatorname{Sum}[\mathrm{a}[\mathrm{n}],\{\mathrm{n}, 1, \mathrm{k}\}] ;
\end{aligned}
$$

(11) To get an idea what if the partial sums converge, find the first 50 (or more) partial sums using the command Table and graph them using DiscretePlot. From the table and graph, can you guess if the series $\sum a_{n}$ converges or diverges?
(12) You can find the value of the series by

```
Sum[a[n], {n,1,Infinity}]
```

If this command takes too long, change Sum to NSum.
(13) Repeat Exercises (10), (11), (12) for the series

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^{2}-3 n \sin n}{n^{4}+1}
$$

## 2 Find radius and interval of convergence

Recall that a power series centered at $x_{0}$ is a series of the form $\sum a_{n}\left(x-x_{0}\right)^{n}$. On its interval of convergence, a power series defines a function. Not counting the endpoints, the interval of convergence is always a symmetric interval about the center of the power series. Consider the power series

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-3)^{n} x^{n}}{\sqrt{n+1}}
$$

To find the radius of convergence, one can use either the Ratio test or the Root test. Let

$$
a_{n}=\frac{(-3)^{n} x^{n}}{\sqrt{n+1}}
$$

The Ratio test says that if the limit

$$
\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty}\left|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_{n}}\right|=L
$$

exists and $L<1$ then the series converges. If $L>1$ then the series diverges. If $L=1$ then the test fails.
(14) We compute the limit $L$ as follows.

```
a[n_] := (-3)^n*x^n/Sqrt[n + 1]
Clear[n]
L = Limit[Abs[a[n + 1]/a[n]], n -> Infinity]
```

Here, Abs is the absolute value function.
(15) The values of $x$ that makes $L<1$ belongs to the interval of convergence. We solve the inequality $L<1$ as follows.

```
Reduce[L < 1, x, Reals]
```

The option Reals in the above command is to indicate that we are interested in $x$ as a real number (as opposed to complex number).
(16) You will see that the inequality $L<1$ gives $x \in\left(-\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$. The radius of convergence is a half of the length of this interval, which is $R=\frac{1}{3}$. The endpoints $-1 / 3$ and $1 / 3$ have to be considered manually and separately. Mathematica can provide some insights as follows. Let $f(x)$ denote the value of the power series.

```
f[\mp@subsup{x}{-}{\prime}]:= Sum[(-3)^n*x^n/Sqrt[n + 1], {n, 0, Infinity}]
```

We can attempt to evaluate $f$ at $x=1 / 3$ and $x=-1 / 3$.

```
f[1/3]
```

f [-1/3]

Mathematica will show a warning on the second command, indicating that $f$ is not defined at $x=-1 / 3$. Therefore, the interval of convergence is $(-1 / 3,1 / 3]$.

Now consider the power series

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n(x+2)^{n}}{3^{n+1}}
$$

Follow Exercises (14), (15), (16) to do the following exercises.
(17) What is the center of this power series? Find the radius of convergence.
(18) Find the interval of convergence.
(19) Approximate the value of the power series at $x=0$.

## 3 Approximate the value of the power series

In many applications, it is helpful to approximate a function with polynomials. Polynomials are easier to take derivative or integral, and more computer-friendly because they involve only the addition, subtraction, and multiplication. To approximate a function by a polynomial, we simply truncate the Taylor series of the function. Recall that the Taylor series of a function $f$ at $x_{0}$ is given by

$$
\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_{n}\left(x-x_{0}\right)^{n}, \text { where } a_{n}=\frac{f^{(n)}\left(x_{0}\right)}{n!}
$$

Truncating this series at a power $m$, we get an $m^{\prime}$ th degree Taylor polynomial

$$
T_{m}(x)=\sum_{n=0}^{m} a_{n}\left(x-x_{0}\right)^{n}
$$

and $f$ is approximated by $f(x) \approx T_{m}(x)$. The approximation is good when $x$ is close to $x_{0}$, which is the center of the power series, and gets worse as $x$ is far away from the center. To maintain a good approximation when $x$ is far away from $x_{0}$, you will have to increase the degree $m$. The larger $m$ is, the farther away $x$ can be from $x_{0}$ and the approximation is still good.

To obtain the Taylor polynomials $T_{m}$ centered at $x_{0}=0$ of a function $f$, we use the command Series with the syntax

$$
\text { Series[f, \{x, 0, m\}] }
$$

(20) For example, consider the function $f(x)=\sin x+\cos (x / \sqrt{2})$. Try the command

```
f[x_] := Sin[x] + Cos[x/Sqrt[2]]
Series[f[x], {x, 0, 7}]
```

The output will look something like

$$
1+x-\frac{x^{2}}{4}-\frac{x^{3}}{6}+\frac{x^{4}}{96}+\frac{x^{5}}{120}-\frac{x^{6}}{5760}-\frac{x^{7}}{5040}+O\left(x^{8}\right)
$$

Therefore, the first seven Taylor polynomials $T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots, T_{7}$ are

$$
\begin{aligned}
T_{1}(x) & =1+x \\
T_{2}(x) & =1+x-\frac{x^{2}}{4} \\
T_{3}(x) & =1+x-\frac{x^{2}}{4}-\frac{x^{3}}{6} \\
& \cdots \\
T_{7}(x) & =1+x-\frac{x^{2}}{4}-\frac{x^{3}}{6}+\frac{x^{4}}{96}+\frac{x^{5}}{120}-\frac{x^{6}}{5760}-\frac{x^{7}}{5040}
\end{aligned}
$$

The term $O\left(x^{8}\right)$ denotes the error term, which is the difference between the function $f$ and the polynomial $T_{7}$.
(21) To see how well each Taylor polynomial approximates the function $f$, we graph them together on the same plot. For example, try the following to graph $f$ and $T_{1}$ on the same plot.

```
T1[x_] := 1+x
Plot[{f[x], T1[x]}, {x,-3,3}]
```

(22) Use the fashion above to graph each of the functions $T_{2}, T_{3}, \ldots, T_{7}$ (one by one, not all at once) together with $f$ on the same plot. What do you observe?
(23) One way to quantify how good the approximation $f(x) \approx T_{m}(x)$ is on the interval $x \in[-3,3]$ is by looking at the maximum value of $\left|f(x)-T_{m}(x)\right|$ on the interval $[-3,3]$. Try

```
MaxValue[{Abs[f[x] - T1[x]], -3 <= x <= 3}, x]
NMaxValue[{Abs[f[x] - T1[x]], -3 <= x <= 3}, x]
```

(24) For $m=2,3, \ldots, 7$, find the maximum of $\left|f(x)-T_{m}(x)\right|$ on the interval $[-3,3]$.
(25) How large does $m$ have to be so that $f(x) \approx T_{m}(x)$ with an error less than 0.01 for any $x \in[-3,3]$ ?

## 4 To turn in

Submit your implementation of Exercises (1) - (25) as a single pdf file.

